

## Article

Oxidative Stress and  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  Release Events in Mouse Cardiomyocytes

Natalia Shirokova,<sup>1,\*</sup> Chifei Kang,<sup>1</sup> Miguel Fernandez-Tenorio,<sup>3</sup> Wei Wang,<sup>2</sup> Qionglin Wang,<sup>2</sup> Xander H. T. Wehrens,<sup>2</sup> and Ernst Niggli<sup>3,\*</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Pharmacology and Physiology, New Jersey Medical School, Rutgers, The State University of New Jersey, Newark, New Jersey; <sup>2</sup>Cardiovascular Research Institute, Department of Molecular Physiology and Biophysics, Baylor College of Medicine, Houston, Texas; and <sup>3</sup>Department of Physiology, University of Bern, Bern, Switzerland

**ABSTRACT** Cellular oxidative stress, associated with a variety of common cardiac diseases, is well known to affect the function of several key proteins involved in  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signaling and excitation-contraction coupling, which are known to be exquisitely sensitive to reactive oxygen species. These include the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release channels of the sarcoplasmic reticulum (ryanodine receptors or RyR2s) and the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ /calmodulin-dependent protein kinase II (CaMKII). Oxidation of RyR2s was found to increase the open probability of the channel, whereas CaMKII can be activated independently of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  through oxidation. Here, we investigated how oxidative stress affects RyR2 function and SR  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signaling in situ by analyzing  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  sparks in permeabilized mouse cardiomyocytes under a broad range of oxidative conditions. The results show that with increasing oxidative stress  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  spark duration is prolonged. In addition, long and very long-lasting (up to hundreds of milliseconds) localized  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release events started to appear, eventually leading to sarcoplasmic reticulum (SR)  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  depletion. These changes of release duration could be prevented by the CaMKII inhibitor KN93 and did not occur in mice lacking the CaMKII-specific S2814 phosphorylation site on RyR2. The appearance of long-lasting  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release events was paralleled by an increase of RyR2 oxidation, but also by RyR-S2814 phosphorylation, and by CaMKII oxidation. Our results suggest that in a strongly oxidative environment oxidation-dependent activation of CaMKII leads to RyR2 phosphorylation and thereby contributes to the massive prolongation of SR  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release events.

## INTRODUCTION

Cellular oxidative stress is increasingly recognized as a substantial contributor to the pathology of a wide range of diseases affecting cardiac muscle. Only a few studies have examined consequences of oxidative stress with particular focus on  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signaling and excitation-contraction (EC) coupling, because many  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signaling proteins are known to be exquisitely susceptible to oxidative posttranslational modifications (for reviews see (1,2)). In particular, the sarcoplasmic reticulum (SR)  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release channel (ryanodine receptor type 2 (RyR2)) was found to undergo an array of functional changes after redox modifications of cysteine residues (3). Generally, under moderately and severely oxidizing conditions the RyR channels become more sensitive to  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  triggers (4), which may lead to aberrant and arrhythmogenic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release events occurring in diastole (e.g.,  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  waves). In addition, it has recently been reported that the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ /calmodulin-dependent protein kinase II (CaMKII) can be converted into the active form by redox modification (5). This occurs after oxidation of methionine residues in the regulatory domain of CaMKII. Because RyR2s can be phosphorylated by CaMKII, this indirect pathway could also contribute to abnormal RyR2 behavior during diseases involving oxidative stress (6,7).

In the heart, the major sources of reactive oxygen species (ROS) include NAD(P)H oxidases (NOXs (8–10)), xanthine oxidase (XO (11)), and mitochondria (12,13). In several models of slowly progressing cardiac diseases, NOXs are overexpressed and exhibit a high degree of activity, thereby contributing to oxidative stress (e.g., after myocardial infarction, during hypertrophy and heart failure, dystrophic cardiomyopathy, for review see (14)). During the progression of such diseases  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signaling during excitation-contraction (EC) coupling may be altered, becoming abnormally sensitive to  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  triggers (15,16). This may arise from changes of RyR2  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  sensitivity. During later stages of heart disease, the high RyR2 sensitivity may lead to long-lasting  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  sparks, substantial diastolic SR  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  leaks, ultimately contributing to the decline of SR  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  content (together with the often reduced SERCA expression) (17), followed by smaller  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  transients and weaker contractions (7,18,19). Experimentally, this RyR2 hypersensitivity could sometimes be normalized in vitro by compounds that neutralize or scavenge ROS or inhibitors of CaMKII. In vivo studies showed that treating animals with ROS scavenging compounds, such as *N*-acetyl cysteine or polyphenols (epigallocatechin gallate), delayed disease progression, lending further support for the notion that oxidative stress may be critically involved in the pathology of some cardiomyopathies (20). In addition, pharmacological and/or genetic inhibition of CaMKII phosphorylation

Submitted July 22, 2014, and accepted for publication October 24, 2014.

\*Correspondence: nshiroko@njms.rutgers.edu or niggli@pyl.unibe.ch

Editor: Godfrey Smith.

© 2014 by the Biophysical Society  
0006-3495/14/12/2815/13 \$2.00



<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.bpj.2014.10.054>

of RyR2s improves cardiac performance in ROS-triggered dystrophic cardiomyopathy (16,21,22).

The ratio of reduced to oxidized glutathione in the cytosol ([GSH]/[GSSG]) is frequently used as an indicator and determinant of oxidative stress in different tissues, because it is a major cellular redox buffer in mammalian cells. In a typical healthy cardiac cell the overall ratio of [GSH]/[GSSG] determined with biochemical assays is around 30:1 (18). This ratio was found to be significantly reduced in various cardiac diseases, including dystrophic cardiomyopathy and heart failure (18). Of note, this ratio is an average value determined from all subcellular compartments, including the cytosol, mitochondria, SR, and other organelles. The cytosol itself is normally much less oxidized than some intracellular organelles, most notably the SR. Recent estimates of cytosolic ratios with a redox-sensitive genetic probe indicate [GSH]/[GSSG] ratios of several hundreds or even thousands to one (23). However, during several cardiac diseases, mitochondrial function will ultimately deteriorate, leading to permeability pore transitions and mitochondrial depolarization, which can be followed by apoptotic or necrotic cell death (13). Mitochondrial depolarization is accompanied by a highly localized but extremely strong burst of ROS in the vicinity of a particular mitochondrion. Such events can be detected with confocal imaging and ROS-sensitive fluorescent chemical or genetic indicators and are referred to as superoxide flashes (24,25). The precise extent of oxidative stress generated within these local ROS bursts is presently unknown, but it is much higher than the average cellular redox potentials determined with biochemical techniques.

To analyze the role and importance of altered redox potentials and the ramifications of the strong ROS flashes on the function of the RyR2s, we examined  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  sparks as an indicator of RyR2 activity using permeabilized ventricular myocytes. In this experimental system, we could apply a wide range of well-defined strongly oxidizing conditions by adjusting the [GSH]/[GSSG] ratios. Such conditions would obviously not be survived by intact cardiomyocytes, if present throughout the entire cytosol.

In these experiments we found, in pronounced oxidative environment, dramatic changes in morphology of the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  sparks, most notably the appearance of long and very long-lasting  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release events, which only terminated after hundreds of milliseconds. The appearance of these events ultimately resulted in a modest depletion of SR  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  content. These conditions also resulted in oxidative activation of CaMKII and phosphorylation of the RyR2s at the serine 2814 site. The number of the long-lasting  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release events was reduced by inhibitors of CaMKII and they were not observed in transgenic mice with an ablated S2814 phosphorylation site on the RyR2s. Thus, extremely oxidative conditions, as they can for example be observed as superoxide flashes near mitochondria, may be able to affect

RyR2 gating and SR  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release. Abnormal SR  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release may be, in addition to its arrhythmogenic potential, relevant for activation of downstream signals triggering cellular damage (e.g., calpain activation, apoptosis) and progression of the disease.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

### Isolation of cardiomyocytes

After cervical dislocation of 4–6 month old C57BL/10 mice hearts were quickly removed and cardiac ventricular myocytes were enzymatically isolated using retrograde cardiac perfusion on a Langendorff apparatus with solutions (37°C) containing collagenase as previously described (26). All animal handling and experimental procedures were carried out following the guidelines of the National Institutes of Health for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals (1996), and were approved by the Swiss State and Federal Veterinary Offices.

### Cell permeabilization

Cells were permeabilized by exposure to the saponin  $\beta$ -escin (20  $\mu\text{M}$ ), added to a recording solution that contained: 110 mM  $\text{K}^+$  aspartate, 1 mM EGTA (reduced to 0.1 mM for  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  wave experiments), 10 mM phosphocreatine, 5 units/ml creatine phosphokinase, 4% dextran (mol. wt. 70,000), 3 mM  $\text{MgCl}_2$ , 3 mM K-ATP, 50  $\mu\text{M}$  fluo-3, 10 mM HEPES, and 3 mM GSSG+GSH. Concentration of free  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  was adjusted to 60 nM,  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$  to 1 mM, pH was 7.2, temperature 20–22°C. The time course of loading of the cytosolic space with fluo-3 was carefully followed to rapidly remove the  $\beta$ -escin before it could compromise the function of intracellular organelles. On average the loading procedure lasted around 15 min. The timing for oxidative stress application was kept similar for all cells.

### Solutions with various oxidative strengths

The solutions contained a total of 3 mM GSH+GSSG. The composition was as follows: 2.99 mM GSH + 0.01 mM GSSG (ratio 300:1); 2.86 + 0.14 mM (ratio 20:1) 2.25 + 0.75 mM (ratio 3:1); 1.5 + 1.5 mM (ratio 1:1); 0.5 + 2.5 mM (ratio 1:5). The ambient oxygen pressure determined the  $\text{P}_{\text{O}_2}$  (~150 mmHg). To estimate SR content,  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  transients resulting from a puff of 10 mM caffeine applied to the permeabilized cells were recorded.

### Voltage-clamp experiments

For estimates of SERCA activity  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  transients were triggered with L-type  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  currents in myocytes under whole-cell patch-clamp conditions. Cells were dialyzed with pipette filling solutions containing [GSH]/[GSSG] at ratios of 300:1 and 1:5. Solutions were identical to those used for permeabilized cells, but without dextran (see above). After a prepulse protocol to load the SR, a depolarization to 0 mV lasting 200 ms was applied from a holding potential of –50 mV, to activate L-type  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  current and trigger a  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  transient.

### Confocal $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ imaging

Fluo-3 was excited with the 488 nm line of an argon-ion laser, attenuated to 50  $\mu\text{W}$ . Fluorescence was detected at >500 nm with a laser-scanning confocal microscope ( $\mu\text{Radiance}$ , Bio-Rad Laboratories, Hemel Hempstead, UK) operating in linescan mode (500 lines/s) along the longitudinal cell axis, using a 60 $\times$ , 1.2 N.A. water immersion objective. The frequency

and spatiotemporal parameters of the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  sparks were determined from linescan images using ImageJ analysis software with the SparkMaster algorithm (27).  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  spark frequencies are expressed as the number of recorded sparks per second and per 100  $\mu\text{m}$  of scanned distance, spark width as full width at half-maximal amplitude (in  $\mu\text{m}$ ), duration as full duration at half-maximal amplitude (FDHM in ms). Confocal linescan images are shown as pseudoratiometric images obtained by linewise normalization (28).

## Biochemical assay

Mouse ventricular samples were sonicated in the radio-immunoprecipitation assay lysis buffer ( $1\times$  TBS, 1% P-40, 0.5% sodium deoxycholate, 0.1% SDS, 0.004% sodium azide supplemented with phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride, protease inhibitor cocktail and Calyculin A (Santa Cruz, CA)). Protein concentration in a sample was determined with an Eppendorf photometer using bovine serum albumin (BSA) as a standard. For immunoblotting, 40  $\mu\text{g}$  of protein lysate per sample was denatured in  $4\times$  SDS-PAGE sample loading buffer and loaded to 4% (for RyR2) or 10% (for CaMKII) SDS-polyacrylamide gel, respectively. Blots were then transferred in nitrocellulose membrane (Bio-Rad, CA) at 15V for 16–18 h at  $4^\circ\text{C}$  (for RyR2) and at 90V for 90 min at  $4^\circ\text{C}$  (for CaMKII), blocked with 1% BSA in TBS and Tween (TBS: 20 mM TRIS-HCl, 200 mM NaCl, 0.6% Tween 20, pH 7.5) for 1 h and probed for proteins of interest. Levels of RyR2, phosphorylated-RyR2, CaMKII, and oxidized-CaMKII were assessed using specific primary antibodies: anti-RyR2 (1:500, Thermo Scientific, Waltham, MA), anti-phosphorylated-RyR2-2808 (1:2000, Badrilla, Leeds, UK), anti-phosphorylated-RyR2-2814 (1:500, Badrilla, UK), anti-CaMKII and anti-oxidized-CaMKII (5) (1:500, both were supplied by Dr. M. Anderson, Iowa City, IA), and appropriate horseradish peroxidase-conjugated secondary antibodies. Membranes were washed 3 times for 15 min in TBST after primary antibodies and secondary antibody incubation, respectively. The chemiluminescence was detected and acquired onto MultiImage light cabinet (Alpha-Mediatech, Ann Arbor, MI, CA). For Oxyblots, cardiac SR samples (100  $\mu\text{g}$ ) were prepared according to previous literature (29), and then resuspended in 100  $\mu\text{L}$  of 100 mM KES, 500 mM sucrose, pH 7.4 and incubated with  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  (0 mM) or GSSG (5 mM) for 30 min at room temperature. After reaction the samples were centrifuged at  $110,000\times g$  for 10 min. Pellets from centrifugation were resuspended in buffer. Oxidation of RyR2 was detected by anti-DNP antibody (Oxyblot, Millipore, Billerica, MA).

## Statistical analysis

Results are expressed as mean  $\pm$  standard error of the mean. Except in the experiments with hydrogen peroxide, the number ( $n$ ) of sparks was higher than 500 events for all experimental groups.  $N$  for other types of experiments are indicated in the figure legends, all data were collected from at least three independent experiments. Statistical significance was evaluated by paired or unpaired Student's  $t$ -test. A  $p$ -value of  $<0.05$  was considered significant. Statistical significance is indicated by \*\* on the graphs.

## RESULTS

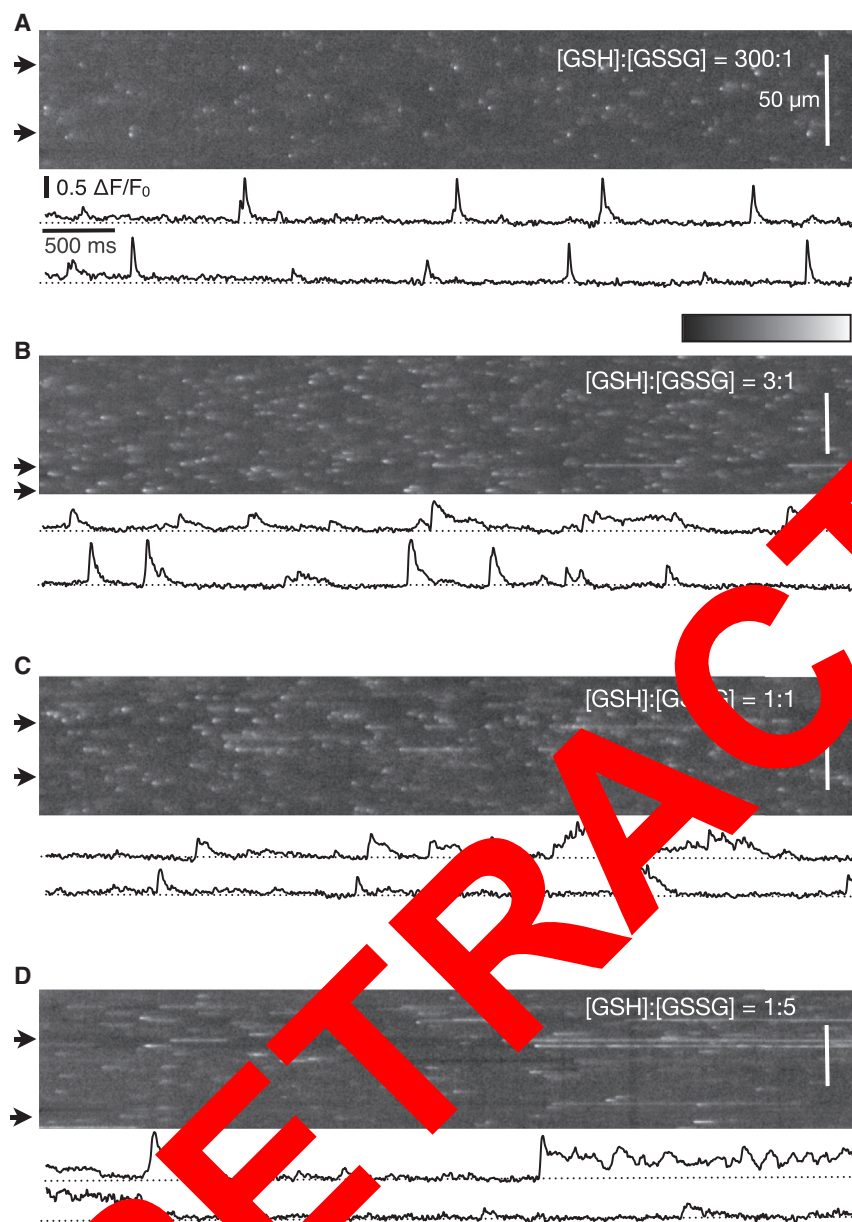
### Changes of $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ spark parameters under oxidative stress

In the first series of experiments, we tested the hypothesis that the oxidized cytosolic redox potential would result in higher  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  spark frequencies as a manifestation of elevated RyR2 open probabilities. Permeabilized mouse cardiomyocytes were placed for  $\sim 3$  min (sufficient to reach a steady state of spark frequencies) in solutions with

[GSH]/[GSSG] ratios ranging from 300:1 to 1:5, while the total concentration of [GSH]+[GSSG] was kept constant at 3 mM. The ratio of 300:1 is in the range of normal cytosolic conditions (23). Fig. 1, A–D, shows confocal linescan images of fluo-3 fluorescence recorded under increasingly oxidizing conditions. The linescan images shown were processed by linewise fluorescence normalization (i.e., pseudoratiometric images (28)). Selected fluorescent profiles from the regions marked with arrows are shown below the linescan images. In the near normal cytosolic environment ([GSH]/[GSSG] ratio of 300:1) spontaneous  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  sparks were observed at a frequency of around 25 sparks per 100  $\mu\text{m}$  scanned line and second (Fig. 1 A), which is comparable to the findings in previous studies, where neither GSH nor GSSG had been added (30). A modest change of the ratio to 1:1 did not make a difference for  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  spark parameters. However, when changing to a more oxidative solution ([GSH]/[GSSG] ratio of 3:1, Fig. 1 B), the spark frequency increased by  $\sim 40\%$ , the duration (FDHM) by 20% and the amplitude by 20% (Fig. 2 A). Spark rise times did not change markedly. These modifications of the spark parameters were associated with a moderate increase in estimated SR  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  load, defined as the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release of a  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  transient induced by local application of 10 mM caffeine (see Fig. 3). We also carried out control experiments with lower and higher concentrations of GSH and GSSG (but constant redox potential) to exclude direct pharmacological effects of these compounds on the RyR2s (data not shown).

Previous studies found that even limited oxidative stress, imposed as decreased [GSH]/[GSSG] ratios in the cytosolic space, can lead to oscillatory instabilities of the mitochondrial membrane potential and ultimately to mitochondrial depolarization by a mechanisms also called ROS-induced ROS release (24,31). Thereby, the depolarizing mitochondria generate a burst of ROS which results in a highly oxidized but spatially confined domain in their vicinity (superoxide flashes) (25). In an attempt to mimic the redox potentials prevailing in such domains, we decreased the [GSH]/[GSSG] ratios of the experimental solution further, to cover a large range of redox potentials. This corresponds to the range of ratios over which the RyRs have been found to respond in ryanodine binding assays (4). Stronger oxidation with [GSH]/[GSSG] ratios of 1:1 and 1:5, respectively, led to gradual decreases in spark frequency and amplitude (Fig. 2 A) along with a reduction in SR  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  load, when compared to a ratio of 3:1 (Fig. 3). In parallel, the duration of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  sparks was progressively increased. This was caused by the appearance of long-lasting  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release events (here defined as events with durations more than an arbitrary threshold of 70 ms, Fig. 2, B–D). At very oxidized conditions extremely long-lasting  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release events (with durations  $>200$  ms) started to appear, often extending beyond the end of the linescan recording (Fig. 1 D). Overall, the total number of events (sparks





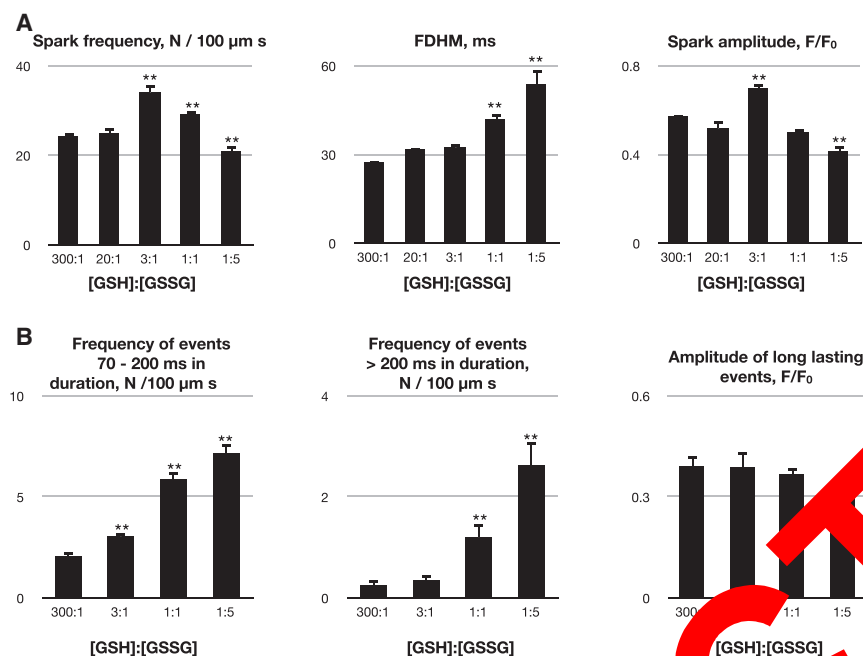
**FIGURE 3**  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release events recorded from permeabilized mouse cardiomyocytes in different oxidizing conditions. (A) In control conditions spontaneous individual  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  sparks can be resolved. (B) In more oxidized conditions, more  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  sparks appeared, they exhibited a longer duration and a few very long-lasting  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release events could be detected. (C) These changes became more pronounced as the oxidative stress increased. (D) In highly oxidative conditions, there was a large number of long-lasting  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release events, whereas the number of regular sparks was reduced. Look-up table and scale bars apply to all traces.

planning-long-lasting events) remained approximately constant in oxidative conditions.

### Long-lasting events of $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ release are inhibited by antagonists of CaMKII

A number of reports have described an increased frequency and duration of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  sparks in cardiomyocytes upon activation of CaMKII (32–34). Transgenic mice expressing a constitutively phosphorylated RyR2 channel (S2814D) showed elevated  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  spark frequencies leading to SR  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  depletion and slightly prolonged  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  sparks (35). Moreover, studies at the single-channel level revealed that CaMKII phosphorylation of RyR2 dramatically increases its open probability and open time (36,37). Therefore, we

next examined whether the morphology of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release events present under strong oxidative conditions can be normalized using an exogenous CaMKII inhibitor. Fig. 4 A shows representative linescan images of fluo-3 fluorescence under severely oxidized conditions (control, [GSH]/[GSSG] ratio of 1:5), and after addition of the CaMKII inhibitor KN93 (5  $\mu\text{M}$ ) or its inactive negative control compound KN92 (5  $\mu\text{M}$ ). In the presence of KN93 the appearance of long-lasting  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release events was minimal, although they were obvious under control conditions and in the presence of the negative control compound KN92. Fig. 4 B summarizes changes in event duration resulting from KN93 and KN92 at [GSH]/[GSSG] ratios of 3:1 and 1:5. In both conditions, inhibition of CaMKII-dependent phosphorylation by KN93 significantly reduced



**FIGURE 2** Analysis of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  spark and release event parameters. (A) Spark frequency, duration (FDHM), and amplitude. Although a moderate oxidative stress did not affect spark parameters significantly, more severe oxidative stress increased the frequency of sparks and their amplitude. Their number and amplitude again declined in very oxidative conditions. The mean duration of sparks gradually increased. (B) The number of long (70–200 ms) and very-long (>200 ms) events gradually increased with more severe oxidative stress. Their amplitude somewhat declined, similar to the amplitude of short events.

the number of long-lasting events, thereby slightly increasing the number of shorter events. KN92 did not affect the long-lasting release signals, confirming that KN92 was acting via CaMKII inhibition. Taken together, this suggests that oxidative stress primarily leads to a reduction of CaMKII and consequent CaMKII-mediated phosphorylation of RyR2. The latter in turn increases RyR2 open probability (and presumably open time), which becomes manifest in the appearance of long sparks.

### Long-lasting events of $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ release are absent in cardiomyocytes with ablated CaMKII-phosphorylation site 2814 on RyR2

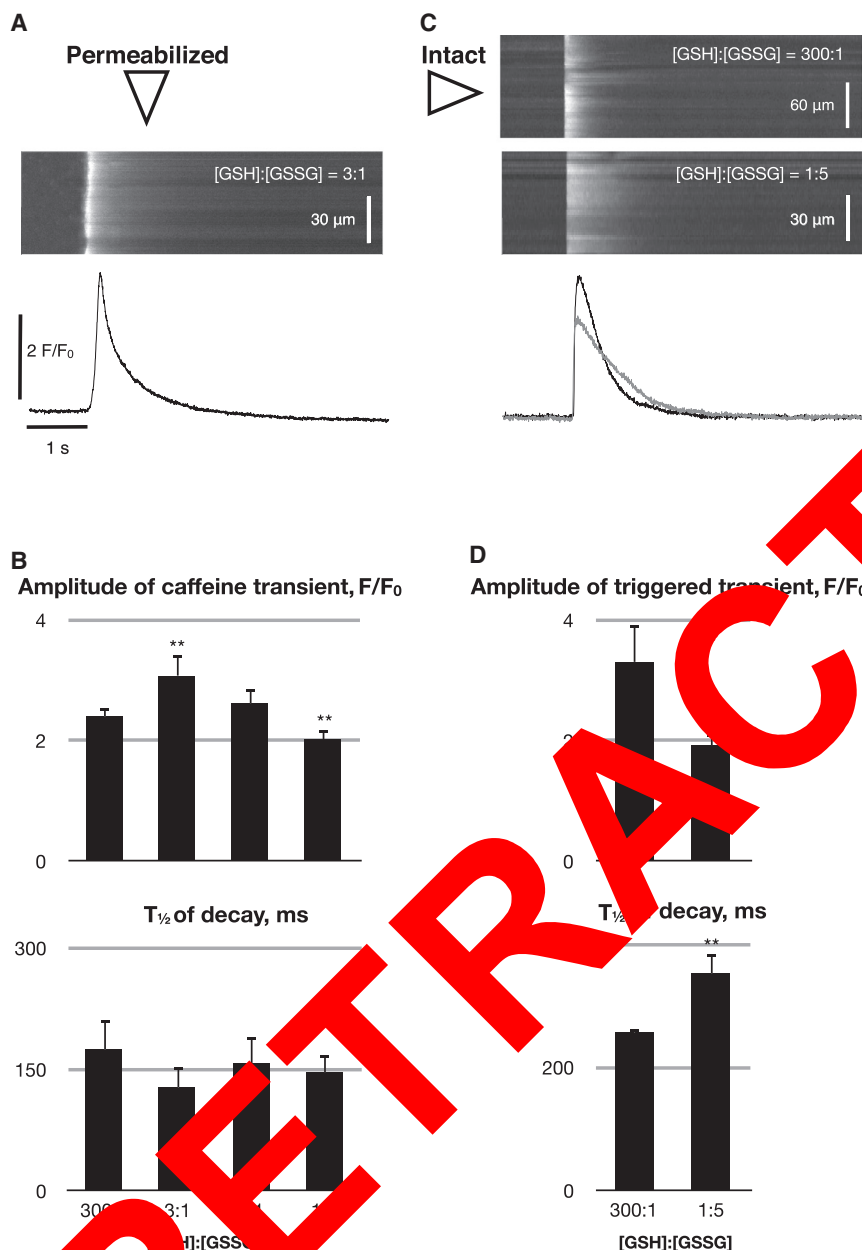
Additional evidence for a CaMKII-dependent mechanism of oxidative activation of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release was obtained in experiments with mouse cardiomyocytes harboring RyR2s in which serine 2814 has been replaced by alanine (RyR-S2814A) (29). This substitution made the RyR2s resistant to CaMKII phosphorylation, but did not change SR  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  content. Fig. 5A shows linescan images of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release events in two different redox conditions in myocytes isolated from wild-type (WT) and RyR-S2814A mice. In the strongly oxidizing solution ([GSH]/[GSSG] ratio of 1:5), the presence of long-lasting  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release events is apparent in WT cells, but not in those lacking the CaMKII phosphorylation site on RyR2. The analysis of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  sparks in Fig. 5B reveals that, as expected, there was no significant difference in spark parameters between the two groups of cells in moderately oxidized media ([GSH]/[GSSG] ratio of 3:1). However, under very strong oxidation ([GSH]/[GSSG] ratio of 1:5) the duration of the events significantly increased in

cells from WT but not S2814A mice, as a result of the appearance of long-lasting events. In fact, events with duration longer than 70 ms were completely absent in S2814A cells, even in strongly oxidizing conditions. In summary, the findings obtained in the RyR-S2814A cells corroborated the results obtained in the presence of the CaMKII blocker KN93 and confirmed the notion that the oxidative environment leads to long-lasting  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release events mainly via CaMKII activation (5) and subsequent RyR2 phosphorylation at serine 2814. This result also makes the participation of other channels, such as the  $\text{InsP}_3$  receptor channels, unlikely.

Because sensitization of the RyR2s for  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  may also increase the propensity for arrhythmias triggered by  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  waves, we analyzed  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  waves in permeabilized cardiomyocytes incubated in solutions with a [GSH]/[GSSG] ratio of 300:1 and 1:5 (Fig. 6). This experimental situation is of course very different from an in vivo event of a superoxide flash, where only a small microdomain becomes exposed to very strong oxidative stress. These measurements revealed a reduced occurrence of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  waves, but a significantly increased  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  wave velocity.

### RyR2s are phosphorylated at CaMKII but not protein kinase A sites

To obtain direct support for the hypothesis that RyR2 channels are phosphorylated at CaMKII sites in response to oxidative stress, we carried out a series of biochemical studies illustrated in Fig. 7. The degree of CaMKII oxidation, as well as protein kinase A (PKA) and CaMKII-dependent phosphorylation status of the RyR2s under different



**FIG. 7.** SR  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  content estimated with caffeine. (A) Example of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  transient elicited in a permeabilized cardiomyocyte by a puff of 10 mM caffeine, shown as a confocal linescan image and a trace. (B) The SR content increased at intermediate oxidative stress, whereas in a highly oxidized milieu SR content moderately declined. The decay half-time of the caffeine-induced  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  transient did not change at various oxidative potentials, but may mainly reflect diffusion of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  out of the permeabilized cells ( $n = 3\text{--}13$  per group). (C) Linescan images and traces of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  transients triggered by L-type  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  currents in intact cells perfused with normal or oxidizing patch-clamp solution. (D) In intact cells, the reduced SR content is paralleled by a prolonged half-time, suggesting reduced SERCA2a activity ( $n = 11$  and 16 cells).

redox conditions were quantified using immunoblotting techniques. In agreement with this view, incubation of cardiac ventricular tissue with GSSG (5 mM) or  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  (10 mM) significantly increased the amount of oxidized CaMKII normalized to total CaMKII (Fig. 7, A and B). In addition, the same conditions also significantly increased the degree of RyR2 phosphorylation at the CaMKII S2814 site, but not at the PKA site S2808 (Fig. 7, C and D).

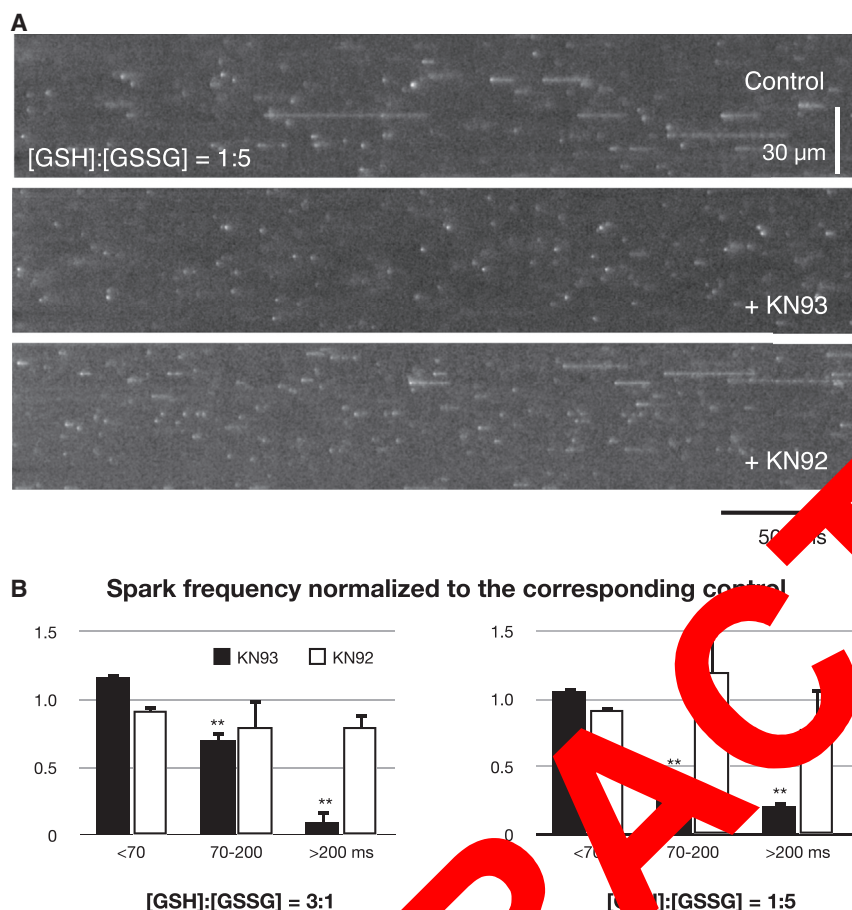
Because most of the changes of the spark parameters appeared to depend on the activity of CaMKII, we assessed the degree of RyR2 oxidation by performing an OxyBlot assay (Fig. 8). These results indicate that RyR2 becomes indeed more oxidized in the presence of GSSG, to an extent that

is not significantly different from that observed in  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ , which served as a positive control experiment.

## DISCUSSION

### Oxidative stress

Imbalance of the cellular redox system is recognized to lead to a plethora of changes in cardiomyocyte function (38). Oxidative stress accompanies a wide range of cardiac diseases, including conditions involving hypoxia, ischemia, inflammation, mechanical overload, and heart failure (2). In cardiomyocytes, several pathways have been found to



**FIGURE 4.** The appearance of long-lasting  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release events is controlled by the CaMKII-dependent pathway. (A) KN93 almost completely suppressed the appearance of long-lasting release events in a highly oxidized environment. In control and in the presence of KN92, a negative control for KN93, no signal appeared. (B) Analysis of the long and short-lasting events in two different oxidative conditions. KN93 prevented the appearance of long events, whereas KN92 had no effect. Values were normalized to the corresponding values obtained under control conditions (no drugs applied).

be particularly sensitive to oxidative stress, including  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signaling, hypertrophic signaling, and the oxidative stress defense pathway itself (31). In several of these pathologies oxidative stress is an important aggregator and drives disease progression (16). The main cellular sources of ROS in cardiomyocytes are NADPH oxidases (NOXs) located in the sarcolemma, the xanthine oxidases (XOs (11)) and the mitochondria (12).

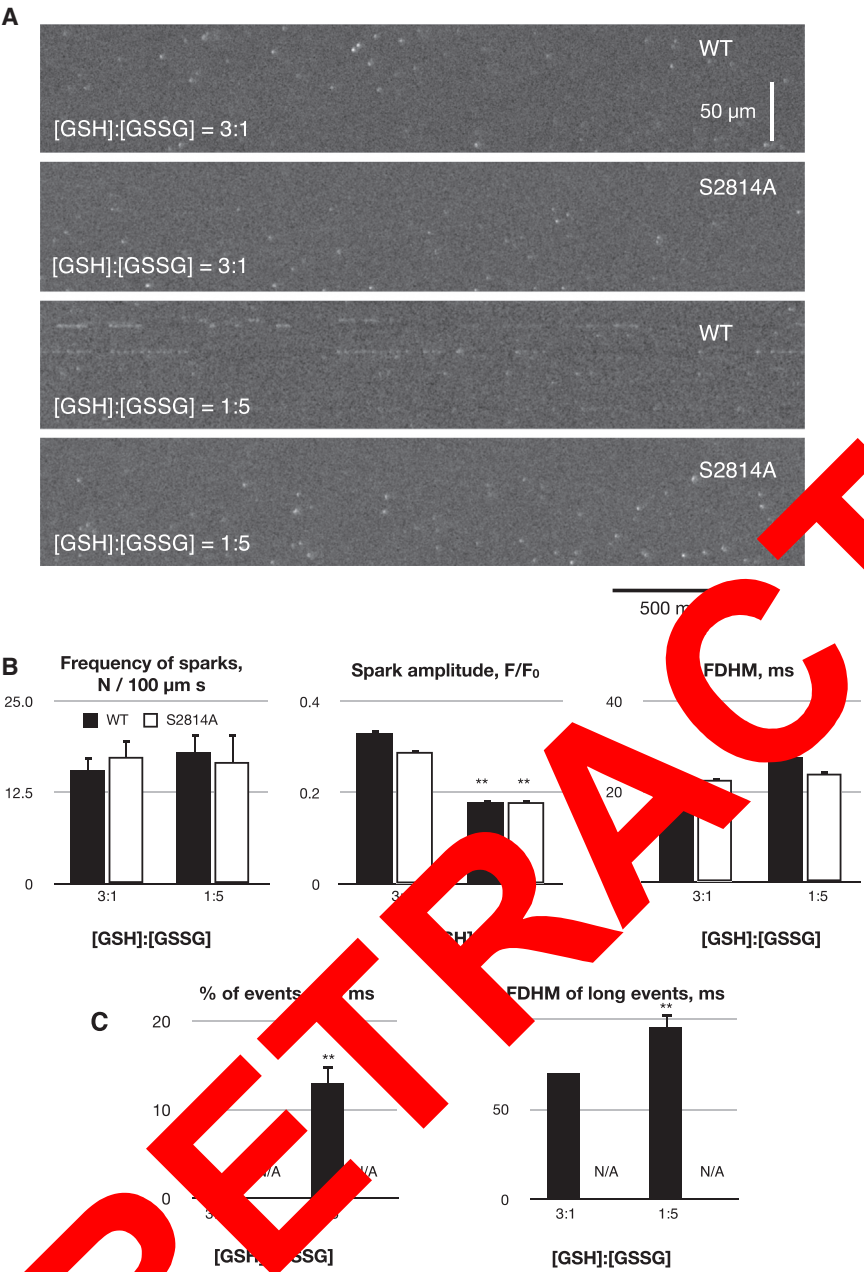
Several proteins involved in cardiac SR  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  cycling have been found to be exceptionally sensitive to changes in the redox environment (1,5,39). ROS can affect the gating properties of such  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channels or the activity of transporters and enzymes. However, it has remained largely unknown how this ROS sensitivity might manifest itself on the molecular level. For example, the function of RyRs (1,39) and CaMKII (5) were found to be very susceptible to redox modifications by ROS. Unwanted activation of this tandem of proteins by ROS could be especially critical, because each of them could further activate the other. CaMKII will phosphorylate (or hyperphosphorylate) the RyR2s, among many other proteins, increasing their open probability, whereas  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  released by the RyR2s will further activate the CaMKII. With the given arrhythmogenic potential of diastolic SR  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release via hyper-

sensitive RyR2s, such a condition may be extremely dangerous in the presence of preexisting alterations of RyR2  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  sensitivity, such as in channels harboring arrhythmogenic mutations. This can occur, despite the autoregulatory features of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -induced  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release, which are expected to attenuate steady-state effects of isolated changes of RyR2  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  sensitivity (17). Based on this rationale, both the RyR2s and CaMKII have been proposed to be potential drug targets to treat  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -induced arrhythmias, either with RyR2 stabilizers (40,41) or CaMKII inhibitors (42).

### General relevance of findings

It is established that both, RyR2s and CaMKII can become activated by redox modifications during oxidative stress, although not necessarily with the same sensitivity. Our results indicate that the combination of RyR2 oxidation and CaMKII activation (with subsequent RyR2 phosphorylation) leads to dramatic alterations of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signaling in the microdomain of the T-tubule/SR junction (a.k.a. couplon), where EC-coupling takes place. However, it is surprising that in our experiments inhibition of CaMKII or removal of the CaMKII-dependent phosphorylation site





**FIGURE 5**  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release events in cells lacking the S281 Ca<sup>2+</sup> channel phosphorylation site on the RyR2. (A) Although there were no spark differences in mildly oxidative conditions ([GSH]/[GSSG] of 3:1), long-lasting release events appeared with [GSH]/[GSSG] of 1:5, but only in WT cells, not in S2814A cells. (B) This is reflected in a prolongation of the mean event duration (FDHM) only seen in WT cells. (C) This mainly resulted from the appearance of long-lasting events (>70 ms) under oxidative conditions in WT cells (14% of all events). Note that events longer than 70 ms were not observed at all in S2814A cells (N/A; total sparks (*n*): 150 and 136 in WT, 169 and 195 in S2814A).

on the RyR2s can largely prevent the occurrence of these abnormally long  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release events. Thus, it appears that the oxidation-dependent CaMKII phosphorylation of RyR2 phosphorylation plays the major role, whereas direct RyR2 oxidation has less severe consequences. This apparent imbalance between direct and indirect mechanisms may be partly related to the experimental conditions and could be quite different in vivo. As it has been reported before, the ambient partial pressure of oxygen is quite high in isolated cardiomyocytes, compared to that physiologically prevailing in tissue. Thus, under ambient experimental conditions some of the cysteines on RyR2 may not be available for oxidation, whereas the oxida-

tion-sensitive methionine residues on CaMKII site are still available (5,43), even though we could biochemically detect at least some additional RyR2 oxidation under strongly oxidative conditions. However, based on our findings we cannot discount the possibility that in vivo oxidative stress will modify RyR2 function directly. In any case, the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release events observed here had a much longer duration than what was found when CaMKII was activated in the absence of extra oxidative stress (33,34,44). Thus, RyR2 oxidation, although by itself not changing the sparks in situ, may have a permissive function by amplifying gating changes induced by CaMKII-dependent phosphorylation. This may occur, for



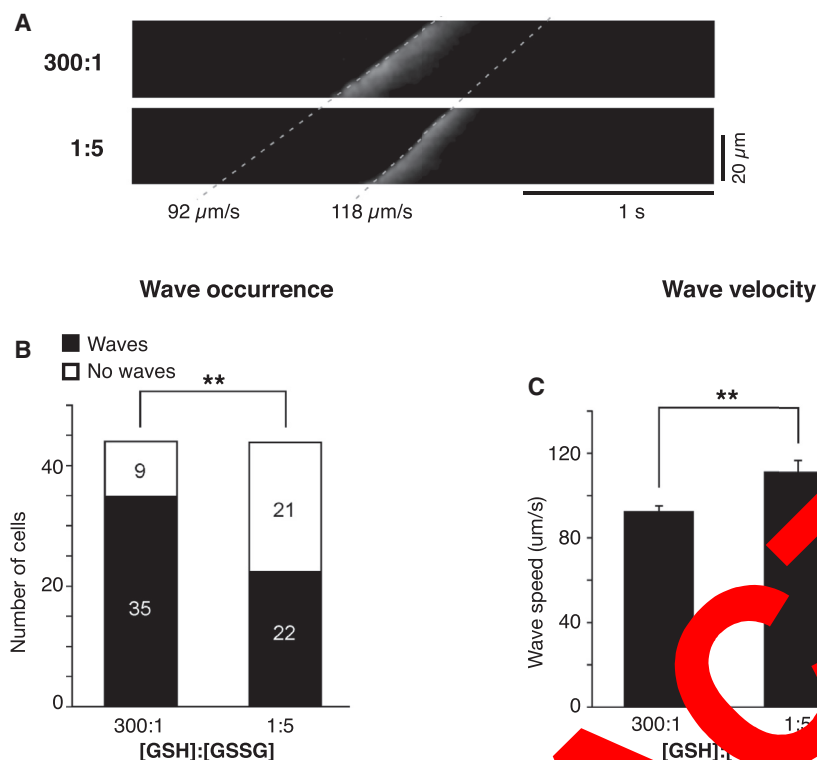


FIGURE 6 Analysis of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  wave occurrence and velocity in permeabilized myocytes. (A) Representative  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  waves in normal and oxidized conditions. Dotted lines are tangent to the wave front to visualize wave speed. (B) Wave occurrence and velocity in oxidized conditions. (C) Statistical analysis of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  wave speed revealed faster waves in an oxidized environment ( $n = 32$  (300:1) and  $n = 19$  (1:5), respectively).

example, by increases of eventless or quirky SR  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release (45). Therefore, it appears that tyrosine translational modifications of RyR2, phosphorylation and oxidative modifications cooperate to increase RyR2 open probability, possibly in an additive way. Related observations were recently reported in isolated pig cardiomyocytes after rapid pacing. In these experiments, the large  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signals in the microdomain of the dyad in combination with ROS generated locally by NAD(P)H oxidase, led to functional changes in coupled RyRs. These were manifest as higher spark frequency and better EC-coupling synchronization (46).

At intermediate levels of oxidative stress we observed a slight increase in the SR  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  content. This may contribute to the higher spark frequency and spark amplitude and could be the result of CaMKII-dependent PLB phosphorylation and ROS-induced SERCA2a stimulation, which may occur at moderate oxidation of the protein. Several studies indicate that S-glutathionylation stimulates SERCA2a, whereas irreversible oxidation of cysteine 674 reduces its function (47,48). As oxidation became stronger, the frequency of long-lasting release events increased, finally representing a relevant SR  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  leak. This leak, together with the oxidative SERCA2a inhibition, in turn resulted in a tendency of the

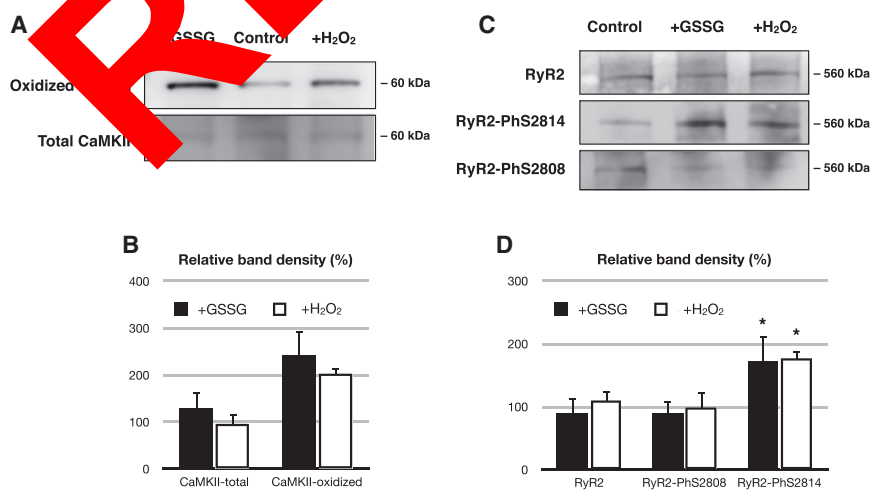


FIGURE 7 Biochemical quantification of CaMKII oxidation and RyR2 phosphorylation. (A and B) Immunoblots and summary of total and oxidized CaMKII. Band intensities recorded from  $n = 3$  samples treated with 5 mM GSSG or 10 mM H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> are presented as a percentage of increase compared with values obtained in samples without treatment. Both interventions resulted in a significant increase in the oxidized form of CaMKII. (C and D) Immunoblots and summary of phosphorylated RyR2. As previously mentioned, band intensities treated with GSSG or H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> are presented as a percentage of increase compared with values obtained in samples without treatment. Whereas normalized intensity of CaMKII-dependent immunoreactivity significantly increased in samples treated with either GSSG or H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, the value did not change significantly for the PKA site.

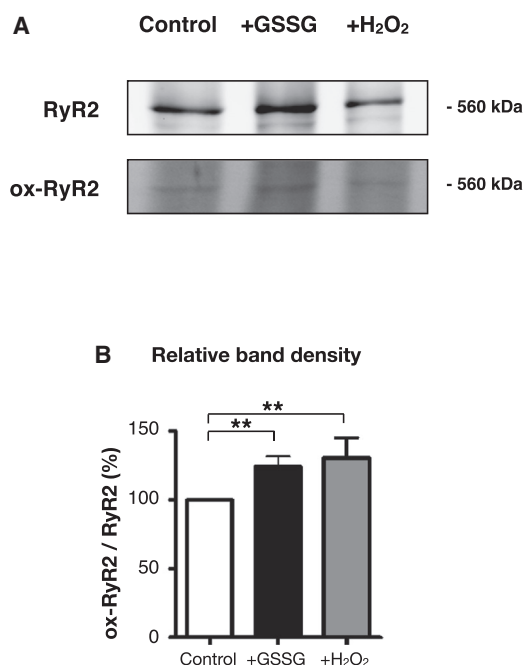


FIGURE 8 Biochemical assay of RyR2 oxidation. (A) OxyBlots of RyRs were carried out in control condition, in the presence of 5 mM GSSG and in the presence of 10 mM H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> ( $n = 4$  samples). (B) In GSSG, the amount of detected RyR2 oxidation, normalized for total RyR2, showed a significant increase in the presence of GSSG. This extent of oxidation was not significantly different from that in H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>.

SR Ca<sup>2+</sup> to decline and in a reduction of the number of short Ca<sup>2+</sup> sparks. Indeed, we observed a decrease in the duration of SR Ca<sup>2+</sup> content and slowing of Ca<sup>2+</sup> transient decay (as an estimate of SERCA2a activity) in intact cells perfused with a strongly oxidizing patch pipette solution ([Gd<sup>3+</sup>]/[GSSG]: 1:5; see Fig. 3).

In the permeabilized cells, Ca<sup>2+</sup> waves were quite rare. In strongly oxidizing solution, only a few waves could be observed, presumably because of the reduced SR Ca<sup>2+</sup> load, as Ca<sup>2+</sup> waves seem to be mainly initiated by elevations of Ca<sup>2+</sup> inside the SR (49). Interestingly, under these conditions the propagation velocity of these waves were significantly consistent with an elevated cytosolic Ca<sup>2+</sup> sensitivity of the RyR2s.

### Mechanisms underlying long-lasting Ca<sup>2+</sup> release events

CaMKII-dependent phosphorylation has been reported to increase the open probability of RyR2s in the lipid bilayer by increasing their Ca<sup>2+</sup> sensitivity. Although in some studies it prolonged open times in the millisecond range (37,50), very long openings lasting several seconds were observed as well (36). In addition, the RyR2s can open into long-lasting subconductance states. In principle, a single RyR2 exhibiting an extremely long opening could entrain a long-lasting SR Ca<sup>2+</sup> release event by repeatedly

activating neighboring RyR2s within the same cluster of channels (51,52). Similarly, multiple and repeated reopenings of several RyR2 channels within one couplon could occur, resulting from the changed Ca<sup>2+</sup> sensitivity and channel gating properties. Instead of a continued or repeated activation of a couplon (which we cannot exclude based on our results), the underlying mechanism may be related to altered SR Ca<sup>2+</sup> release termination (53,54). This could be mechanistically linked to enhanced RyR2 sensitivity for cytosolic Ca<sup>2+</sup>, but could also arise from other changes of RyR function. In this context, it is interesting to note that micromolar caffeine concentration, which also sensitizes the RyR2s for Ca<sup>2+</sup>, does not seem to increase the duration of Ca<sup>2+</sup> sparks (55). The precise mechanism responsible for termination of a group of channels is not yet known, but several possibilities have been proposed. This includes Ca<sup>2+</sup>-dependent inactivation of the RyRs (56), depletion of the Ca<sup>2+</sup> store sensed by calsequestrin (57), and stochastic termination (58), whereby Ca<sup>2+</sup> release eventually terminates when all RyRs are simultaneously closed. Recent concepts of spark termination suggest that the low sensitivity of the RyR2s (micromolar) for activation by Ca<sup>2+</sup> in combination with the declining SR Ca<sup>2+</sup> content and dwindling release flux could conspire to interrupt this mutual channel activation within the couplon, leading to termination by pernicious attrition (59,60). However, when the sensitivity of the RyR2s for activation by Ca<sup>2+</sup> in the dyadic cleft is abnormally high, such as after phosphorylation by CaMKII and RyR2 oxidation, Ca<sup>2+</sup> release termination by any of these mechanisms could be delayed and thus Ca<sup>2+</sup> release signals would be prolonged. The number of actually open RyR2 channels may be less than during a regular spark, either because of gating changes induced by oxidation and/or CaMKII-dependent phosphorylation or because of a lower Ca<sup>2+</sup> concentration in the dyadic cleft, as the release flux decreases (61). During the long duration of the release events, the Ca<sup>2+</sup> concentration inside the junctional SR of a release site will reach a low steady-state level, governed by the balance of SR Ca<sup>2+</sup> release flux and diffusion of Ca<sup>2+</sup> inside the SR to the couplon (62–64). As long as this intra-SR Ca<sup>2+</sup> level sustains a release flux that keeps the dyadic Ca<sup>2+</sup> concentration above cutoff for termination, release can continue. This situation is mechanistically attractive as it could also explain the long-lasting Ca<sup>2+</sup> release events observed under a variety of circumstances (65), such as, for example, from the nuclear envelope, which is part of the SR but has a very large volume close to the release site (66). There, the decline of local [Ca<sup>2+</sup>]<sub>SR</sub> would be small, which could preclude or at least delay termination.

### Limitations of the study

Imposing various redox potentials on cardiomyocytes will obviously affect many signaling systems, including a few that are relevant for Ca<sup>2+</sup> cycling. Thus, there are many

As with any other study involving transgenic animals, there is always the possibility of adaptive changes. In the case of the S2814A mice with ablated CaMKII-dependent phosphorylation site on the RyR we know that these animals have no phenotype alterations at baseline (29). Of particular importance for this study is the observation that the SR  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  content is unchanged under baseline conditions.

In cardiomyocytes, oxidative conditions result in an increase of the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  spark frequency, whereas strong oxidative stress leads to dramatic changes of  $\text{SR Ca}^{2+}$  release event duration. This occurs mainly via activation of CaMKII, by methionine oxidation of its regulatory subunit. Subsequently, CaMKII phosphorylates the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release channel CaMKII-specific serine 2814 *in vivo*, whereas phosphorylation at the PKA site (2808) remains unchanged. In some cardiac diseases and pathologic states, such a strong oxidative environment is likely to prevail in the microdomain of mitochondrial superoxide flashes, generated by a burst of mitochondrial ROS during intermittent openings of the mitochondrial permeability transition pore. Such bursts of ROS are thought to be produced, for example, during ischemic reperfusion and are known to accompany apoptotic and necrotic cell death. The extremely long duration of ROS and  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release events leads to SR  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  depletion because of the resulting  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  leak/uptake imbalance. This long duration is also consistent with a sensitization of the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release channels for cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  and with delayed  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release termination. However, based on these observations other modes of RyR2 sensitization, such as by SR luminal  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ , cannot be excluded and could contribute to the long  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release duration.

This work was supported by the Swiss National Science Foundation (31-132689 and 31-156375 to E.N.), by the National Institutes of Health (NIH) (R01AR053933 and R01HL093342 to N.S., R01-HL089598 and R01-HL091947 to X.H.T.W.), by the Swiss Foundation for Research on Muscle diseases (to N.S. and E.N.), by the American Heart Association (13EIA14560061 to X.H.T.W.), the Fondation Leducq 'Alliance for

1. Hidalgo, C., P. Donoso, and M. A. Carrasco. 2005. The ryanodine receptors  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release channels: cellular redox sensors? *IUBMB Life*. 57:315–322.
2. Hare, J. M., and J. S. Stamler. 2005. Nitric oxide disequilibrium in the failing heart and cardiovascular system. *J. Clin. Invest.* 115:509–517.
3. Boraso, A., and A. J. Williams. 1998. Modification of the gating of the cardiac sarcoplasmic reticulum  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release channel by  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  and dithiothreitol. *Am. J. Physiol.* 267:H1007–H1016.
4. Xia, R., T. Stangler, and G. J. Abramson. 2005. Skeletal muscle ryanodine receptor is a redox sensor with a well-defined redox potential that is sensitive to channel regulators. *J. Biol. Chem.* 275:36556–36561.
5. Erickson, J. E., M.-L. A. Jones, ..., and E. Anderson. 2008. A dynamic pathway for calcium-independent activation of CaMKII by methionine oxidation. *Circulation* 118:462–474.
6. Maier, L. S., and M. Bers. 2007. Role of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ /calmodulin-dependent protein kinase II (CaMK) in excitation-contraction coupling in the heart. *Cardiovasc. Res.* 73:631–640.
7. Louch, W. F., J. Hake, ..., O. M. Sejersted. 2013. Slow  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  sparks de-synchronize  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release in failing cardiomyocytes: evidence for altered configuration of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release units? *J. Mol. Cell. Cardiol.* 63:41–52.
8. Dikalov, K., and K.-H. Krause. 2007. The NOX family of ROS-generating NADPH oxidases: physiology and pathophysiology. *Physiol. Rev.* 87:245–313.
9. Jung, C., A. S. Martins, ..., N. Shirokova. 2008. Dystrophic cardiomyopathy: amplification of cellular damage by  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signalling and reactive oxygen species-generating pathways. *Cardiovasc. Res.* 77:766–773.
10. Prosser, B. L., C. W. Ward, and W. J. Lederer. 2011. X-ROS signaling: rapid mechano-chemo transduction in heart. *Science*. 333:1440–1445.
11. Gonzalez, D. R., A. V. Treuer, ..., J. M. Hare. 2010. Impaired S-nitrosylation of the ryanodine receptor caused by xanthine oxidase activity contributes to calcium leak in heart failure. *J. Biol. Chem.* 285:28938–28945.
12. Duchen, M. R. 2000. Mitochondria and calcium: from cell signalling to cell death. *J. Physiol.* 529:57–68.
13. Aon, M. A., S. Cortassa, ..., B. O'Rourke. 2007. Sequential opening of mitochondrial ion channels as a function of glutathione redox thiol status. *J. Biol. Chem.* 282:21889–21900.
14. Murdoch, C. E., M. Zhang, ..., A. M. Shah. 2006. NADPH oxidase-dependent redox signalling in cardiac hypertrophy, remodelling and failure. *Cardiovasc. Res.* 71:208–215.
15. Ullrich, N. D., M. Fanchauy, ..., E. Niggli. 2009. Hypersensitivity of excitation-contraction coupling in dystrophic cardiomyocytes. *Am. J. Physiol. Heart Circ. Physiol.* 297:H1992–H2003.
16. Kyrychenko, S., E. Poláková, ..., N. Shirokova. 2013. Hierarchical accumulation of RyR post-translational modifications drives disease progression in dystrophic cardiomyopathy. *Cardiovasc. Res.* 97:666–675.
17. Venetucci, L. A., A. W. Trafford, and D. A. Eisner. 2007. Increasing ryanodine receptor open probability alone does not produce arrhythmogenic calcium waves: threshold sarcoplasmic reticulum calcium content is required. *Circ. Res.* 100:105–111.
18. Terentyev, D., I. Györke, ..., S. Györke. 2008. Redox modification of ryanodine receptors contributes to sarcoplasmic reticulum  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  leak in chronic heart failure. *Circ. Res.* 103:1466–1472.
19. Sossalla, S., N. Fluschnik, ..., L. S. Maier. 2010. Inhibition of elevated  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ /calmodulin-dependent protein kinase II improves contractility in human failing myocardium. *Circ. Res.* 107:1150–1161.

20. Sam, F., D. L. Kerstetter, ..., D. B. Sawyer. 2005. Increased reactive oxygen species production and functional alterations in antioxidant enzymes in human failing myocardium. *J. Card. Fail.* 11:473–480.
21. Ather, S., W. Wang, ..., X. H. T. Wehrens. 2013. Inhibition of CaMKII phosphorylation of RyR2 prevents inducible ventricular arrhythmias in mice with Duchenne muscular dystrophy. *Heart Rhythm.* 10: 592–599.
22. Respress, J. L., R. J. van Oort, ..., X. H. T. Wehrens. 2012. Role of RyR2 phosphorylation at S2814 during heart failure progression. *Circ. Res.* 110:1474–1483.
23. Gutscher, M., A.-L. Pauleau, ..., T. P. Dick. 2008. Real-time imaging of the intracellular glutathione redox potential. *Nat. Methods.* 5: 553–559.
24. Zorov, D. B., C. R. Filburn, ..., S. J. Sollott. 2000. Reactive oxygen species (ROS)-induced ROS release: a new phenomenon accompanying induction of the mitochondrial permeability transition in cardiac myocytes. *J. Exp. Med.* 192:1001–1014.
25. Wang, W., H. Fang, ..., H. Cheng. 2008. Superoxide flashes in single mitochondria. *Cell.* 134:279–290.
26. Wolska, B. M., and R. J. Solaro. 1996. Method for isolation of adult mouse cardiac myocytes for studies of contraction and microfluorimetry. *Am. J. Physiol.* 271:H1250–H1255.
27. Picht, E., A. V. Zima, ..., D. M. Bers. 2007. SparkMaster: automated calcium spark analysis with ImageJ. *Am. J. Physiol. Cell Physiol.* 293:C1073–C1081.
28. Lipp, P., and E. Niggli. 1994. Sodium current-induced calcium signals in isolated guinea-pig ventricular myocytes. *J. Physiol.* 474:439–446.
29. van Oort, R. J., M. D. McCauley, ..., X. H. T. Wehrens. 2008. Ryanodine receptor phosphorylation by calcium/calmodulin-dependent protein kinase II promotes life-threatening ventricular arrhythmias in mice with heart failure. *Circulation.* 122:2669–2679.
30. Gusev, K., and E. Niggli. 2008. Modulation of local SR Ca<sup>2+</sup> release by intracellular Mg<sup>2+</sup> in cardiac myocytes. *J. Gen. Physiol.* 132:721–730.
31. Aon, M. A., S. Cortassa, ..., B. O'Rourke. 2003. Spontaneous whole cell oscillations in mitochondrial metabolism triggered by a local release of reactive oxygen species in cardiac myocytes. *J. Biol. Chem.* 278:44735–44744.
32. Maier, L. S., T. Zhang, ..., M. Bers. 2003. Transgenic CaMKII $\delta$  overexpression uniquely alters cardiac myocyte Ca<sup>2+</sup> handling: reduced SR Ca<sup>2+</sup> and activated SR Ca<sup>2+</sup> release. *Circ. Res.* 92:904–911.
33. Currie, S., C. Coughlin, ..., G. L. Smith. 2004. Calcium/calmodulin-dependent protein kinase II $\delta$  associates with the ryanodine receptor complex to regulate channel function in rabbit heart. *Biochem. J.* 377:357–364.
34. Guo, T., T. Zhang, ..., D. M. Bers. 2006. Ca<sup>2+</sup>/Calmodulin-dependent protein kinase II phosphorylation of ryanodine receptor does not alter channel function in mouse ventricular myocytes. *Circ. Res.* 99:100–106.
35. Voigt, I., and Li, ..., D. Dobrev. 2012. Enhanced sarcoplasmic reticulum Ca<sup>2+</sup> and increased Na<sup>+</sup>-Ca<sup>2+</sup> exchanger function underlie delayed afterdepolarizations in patients with chronic atrial fibrillation. *Circulation.* 125:2059–2070.
36. Witcher, D. R., R. J. Kovacs, ..., L. R. Jones. 1991. Unique phosphorylation site on the cardiac ryanodine receptor regulates calcium channel activity. *J. Biol. Chem.* 266:11144–11152.
37. Wehrens, X. H. T., S. E. Lehnart, ..., A. R. Marks. 2004. Ca<sup>2+</sup>/calmodulin-dependent protein kinase II phosphorylation regulates the cardiac ryanodine receptor. *Circ. Res.* 94:e61–e70.
38. Chelu, M. G., S. Sarma, ..., X. H. T. Wehrens. 2009. Calmodulin kinase II-mediated sarcoplasmic reticulum Ca<sup>2+</sup> leak promotes atrial fibrillation in mice. *J. Clin. Invest.* 119:1940–1951.
39. Santos, C. X. C., N. Anilkumar, ..., A. M. Shah. 2011. Redox signaling in cardiac myocytes. *Free Radic. Biol. Med.* 50:777–793.
40. Salama, G., E. V. Menshikova, and J. J. Abramson. 2000. Molecular interaction between nitric oxide and ryanodine receptors of skeletal and cardiac sarcoplasmic reticulum. *Antioxid. Redox Signal.* 2:5–16.
41. Watanabe, H., N. Chopra, ..., B. C. Knollmann. 2009. Flecainide prevents catecholaminergic polymorphic ventricular tachycardia in mice and humans. *Nat. Med.* 15:380–383.
42. Marks, A. R. 2013. Calcium cycling proteins and heart failure: mechanisms and therapeutics. *J. Clin. Invest.* 123:46–52.
43. Swaminathan, P. D., A. Purohit, ..., M. J. Anderson. 2012. Calmodulin-dependent protein kinase II: link between heart failure and arrhythmias. *Circ. Res.* 110:1661–1677.
44. Sun, J., N. Yamaguchi, ..., G. Meissner. 2008. Regulation of the cardiac muscle ryanodine receptor by oxidation and S-nitrosoglutathione. *Biochemistry.* 47:13885–13990.
45. Guo, T., T. Zhang, ..., D. M. Bers. 2002. CaMKII slows [Ca]<sub>i</sub> decline in cardiac myocytes by promoting Ca sparks. *Biophys. J.* 102:2461–2470.
46. Dries, E., V. V. V. ..., J. M. Lacaille. 2003. Selective modulation of coupled ryanodine receptor during microdomain activation of calcium/calmodulin-dependent protein kinase II in the dyadic cleft. *Circ. Res.* 113:1112–1120.
47. Adachi, T., R. M. Eisbrod, ..., R. A. Cohen. 2004. S-Glutathiolation of ryanodine receptor by nitric oxide during arterial relaxation by nitric oxide. *Nat. Med.* 10:1209–1207.
48. Qin, F., D. A. Siwik, ..., W. S. Colucci. 2013. Hydrogen peroxide-mediated ryanodine receptor cysteine 674 oxidation contributes to impaired cardiac myocyte relaxation in senescent mouse heart. *J. Am. Heart Assoc.* 2:e000189.
49. Chen, W., R. Wang, ..., S. R. W. Chen. 2014. The ryanodine receptor store-sensing gate controls Ca<sup>2+</sup> waves and Ca<sup>2+</sup>-triggered arrhythmias. *Nat. Med.* 20:184–192.
50. Hain, J., H. Onoue, ..., H. Schindler. 1995. Phosphorylation modulates the function of the calcium release channel of sarcoplasmic reticulum from cardiac muscle. *J. Biol. Chem.* 270:2074–2081.
51. Xiao, R. P., H. H. Valdivia, ..., H. Cheng. 1997. The immunophilin FK506-binding protein modulates Ca<sup>2+</sup> release channel closure in rat heart. *J. Physiol.* 500:343–354.
52. Sobie, E. A., K. W. Dilly, ..., M. S. Jafri. 2002. Termination of cardiac Ca<sup>2+</sup> sparks: an investigative mathematical model of calcium-induced calcium release. *Biophys. J.* 83:59–78.
53. Zima, A. V., E. Picht, ..., L. A. Blatter. 2008. Termination of cardiac Ca<sup>2+</sup> sparks: role of intra-SR [Ca<sup>2+</sup>], release flux, and intra-SR Ca<sup>2+</sup> diffusion. *Circ. Res.* 103:e105–e115.
54. Zima, A. V., E. Picht, ..., L. A. Blatter. 2008. Partial inhibition of sarcoplasmic reticulum Ca release evokes long-lasting Ca release events in ventricular myocytes: role of luminal Ca in termination of Ca release. *Biophys. J.* 94:1867–1879.
55. Porta, M., A. V. Zima, ..., M. Fill. 2011. Single ryanodine receptor channel basis of caffeine's action on Ca<sup>2+</sup> sparks. *Biophys. J.* 100:931–938.
56. Fabiato, A. 1985. Time and calcium dependence of activation and inactivation of calcium-induced release of calcium from the sarcoplasmic reticulum of a skinned canine cardiac Purkinje cell. *J. Gen. Physiol.* 85:247–289.
57. Terentyev, D., S. Viatchenko-Karpinski, ..., S. Györke. 2003. Calsequestrin determines the functional size and stability of cardiac intracellular calcium stores: mechanism for hereditary arrhythmia. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA.* 100:11759–11764.
58. Stern, M. D. 1992. Theory of excitation-contraction coupling in cardiac muscle. *Biophys. J.* 63:497–517.
59. Guo, T., D. Gillespie, and M. Fill. 2012. Ryanodine receptor current amplitude controls Ca<sup>2+</sup> sparks in cardiac muscle. *Circ. Res.* 111:28–36.
60. Laver, D. R., C. H. T. Kong, ..., M. B. Cannell. 2013. Termination of calcium-induced calcium release by induction decay: an emergent property of stochastic channel gating and molecular scale architecture. *J. Mol. Cell. Cardiol.* 54:98–100.



61. Sato, D., and D. M. Bers. 2011. How does stochastic ryanodine receptor-mediated Ca leak fail to initiate a Ca spark? *Biophys. J.* 101:2370–2379.
62. Thul, R., S. Coombes, ..., M. D. Bootman. 2012. Subcellular calcium dynamics in a whole-cell model of an atrial myocyte. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA.* 109:2150–2155.
63. Picht, E., A. V. Zima, ..., D. M. Bers. 2011. Dynamic calcium movement inside cardiac sarcoplasmic reticulum during release. *Circ. Res.* 108:847–856.
64. Swietach, P., K. W. Spitzer, and R. D. Vaughan-Jones. 2008.  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -mobility in the sarcoplasmic reticulum of ventricular myocytes is low. *Biophys. J.* 95:1412–1427.
65. Biesmans, L., N. Macquaide, ..., K. R. Sipido. 2011. Subcellular heterogeneity of ryanodine receptor properties in ventricular myocytes with low T-tubule density. *PLoS ONE.* 6:e25100.
66. Yang, Z., and D. S. Steele. 2005. Characteristics of prolonged  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release events associated with the nuclei in adult cardiac myocytes. *Circ. Res.* 96:82–90.

RETRACTED